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EARL BARNES,

3640 Chestnut street,
Philadelphia, Pa.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF CHILDHOOD AND YOUTH

OUTLINES OF THIRTY LECTURES

BY
EARL BARNES



NEW YORK
B. W. HUEBSCH
1914

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OBJECT OF THIS COURSE OF LECTURES

THE basal subject of study for teachers must always be children. They are to pedagogy what anatomy and physiology are to medicine, or what soils, plants, and animals are to agriculture. But the genesis of children's minds must also interest parents and all those who care for the development of human nature. The object of this course of lectures is to outline the results of the more recent individual and group studies on the physical, mental, moral, social, æsthetic, and religious life of childhood and youth. The lectures will also seek to make educational applications of the generalizations reached, to the home, the school, and to society at large.

BOOKS DESIRABLE FOR THIS COURSE

The Mental and Physical Life of School Children, by Peter Sandiford, Longmans, Green, & Co., New York, 1913.

Experimental Pedagogy and The Psychology of the Child, by Ed. Claparède, trans. by Mary Louch and Henry Holman, Longmans, Green, & Co., New York, 1912.

Fundamentals of Child Study, by Edwin A. Kirkpatrick, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1904.

Studies in Education, by Earl Barnes, 2 vols., privately printed by Earl Barnes, Philadelphia.

The Mental Health of the School Child, by J. E. Wallace Wallin, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1914.

WHAT A CHILD MAY INHERIT

Need for a study of eugenics: "Eugenics is the science that deals with all the influences that improve the inborn qualities of the race."—Galton. The family, the school, and society at large are alike interested in starting with well-born children, in order to reach the best results for the future, and to avoid the burden of caring for the unfit. Francis Galton gave us the word "eugenics," in 1904; and endowed a Professorship of Eugenics in London University which is now filled by Prof. Karl Pearson.

Theories of inheritance: Darwin, each new experience modifies the organism and then the organism tends to reproduce itself; acquired characteristics are thus inheritable. Weismann, the germ plasm is passed on from generation to generation; only changes that affect the germ plasm are inheritable. Mendel, in crossing breeds, the dominant qualities persist in one-third of the descendants; what are the dominant qualities in man?

Conditions which we know are inherited: Imbecility, insanity, and epilepsy are inherited; blindness and deafness sometimes continue in families. Syphilis is passed on to descendants; gonorrhœa is not inherited, but its effects may carry over to the child. Alcoholism is uncertain; Prof. Karl Pearson vs. Sir Victor Horsley. Tuberculosis is not inherited; though favorable conditions for its development may be.

The world's birth-rate: To perpetuate a group there must be an average of four births in each family. American vital statistics are unreliable, but the American-born parents are not reproducing themselves. In England, the birth-rate, in 1876, was 36.3 per 1000 inhabitants; in 1905, 27.2; in 1906, 27.1; in 1907, 26.3; in 1908, 26.5; in 1909, 25.6; in 1910, 28.8; in thirty years the birth-rate has fallen one-third. This decrease is most rapid in the families of the more wealthy and intelligent classes. In France, the birth-rate is virtually stationary. In Germany, the drop

began twenty years later than in England, but is now going steadily on. In ten years, it has fallen from 31.5 per 1000 births, to 21.9 in Munich; from 31.5 to 20.2 in Dresden; in two large districts of Berlin it has fallen to 13.8, less than the death-rate. The birth-rate is best maintained among Catholics, Jews, members of the Episcopalian Church, and the lowest laboring classes.

Legislation, accomplished or impending: Laws requiring medical examination before marriage, such as those of Indiana and Wisconsin; sterilization of sexual degenerates, as in Indiana; segregation of imbeciles and idiots; registration of syphilitics and consumptives. Encouragement of large families by granting exemption from medical service to fathers; mothers' and widows' pensions. Control of alcohol and narcotics.

Difficult problems: Does the present protection of the unfit, through humane laws, produce more unfit children? Do child labor laws discourage large families? Are large families desirable? Is it better to have a few children well cared for than many children less well nourished and educated? Does the single child in the family suffer a handicap? Is it unfortunate to have the new generation largely recruited from the lower social classes?

READING

The Writings of Darwin, Weismann, and Mendel.

Heredity, by Jonathan Thompson, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

Heredity, by J. A. S. Watson, Dodge Publishing Co., New York.

Parenthood and Race Culture, by C. W. Saleeby, Moffat, Yard & Co., New York, 1911.

The Problem of Race Regeneration, by Havelock Ellis, Moffat, Yard & Co., New York, 1911.

The Mental and Physical Life of School Children, by Peter Sandiford, Longmans, Green, & Co., New York, 1913. See Chap. I, on *Heredity and Environment*.

The Mental Health of the School Child, by J. E. Wallace Wallin, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1914. See Chap. XII.

II

THE LIFE OF EARLY INFANCY

Effects of conditions surrounding conception and pregnancy:

The infant's qualities are probably determined by the nature of the germ plasm. This is formed in a period preceding conception. The time of courtship thus becomes very important, and nature emphasizes this fact in many ways. The mother's good health during pregnancy makes her a good base of nourishment; but in case of weakness the baby takes its own to the destruction of the mother. The mother's thought and feelings during pregnancy are probably valuable only as affecting her health. Prenatal care is, however, very important. In the registration area of the United States, in 1911, 42 per cent. of infants dying under one year of age did not complete the first year of life; and of these, seven-tenths died as a result of prenatal conditions.

Subjective life of infancy: It is mainly vegetative. There are sporadic beginnings of intellectual, social, artistic, and other interests, but they are not very important in the first year of life. Attempts to study the inner life of infants; seldom by mothers; reasons for this. Preyer, Perez, Miss Shinn; difficulty in interpreting what we see.

Care of infancy: It should be regular and very simple. Unbroken sleep, regular feeding, by the mother if possible. The wet nurse, cow's milk, artificial food. In New York, in August, 1909, 67.6 per cent. of the deaths of children under one year old were due to intestinal disturbances. In the city of Berlin, in July, 1909, there were 913 deaths of children fed on cow's milk and only 86 deaths of children breast-fed. Good air, regular nursing by the mother, and quiet are the conditions most desirable. Mother's love, when intelligent, is extremely important.

Infant mortality: Due to bad heritage; bad living conditions, greatest in city slums; to ignorance, far greater among negroes than whites. Efforts to reduce such mortality; pasteurized milk, clean tenements, district nurses,

nursing by the mother, slight use of medicines, education of parents.

The decreasing death-rate in infancy: In the cities of the United States, in 1900, the death of children in the first year of life, ran from 134 per 1000 births, in Chicago, to 260 per 1000 births, in Fall River. In New York City, the general death-rate, in the decade 1896-1905, decreased 26 per cent., while the deaths under one year of age decreased 43 per cent. In England and Wales, the deaths under one year per 1000 births has decreased from 156, in 1831, to 146, in 1904. In France, it dropped from 167 per 1000 births, in the period 1874-1893, to 137, in 1903.

The education of infancy: The establishment of the reflexes that regulate eating, digestion, and excretion is very important. The baby should also learn to respect the social conventions that are based on realities. When fed, warm, and clean, it should lie quietly in its crib. The training of these habits is of great value in after life.

READING

The Meaning of Infancy, by John Fiske, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.

The Care of the Baby, by J. P. Crozier Griffith, W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia, 1907.

The Mind of the Child and Mental Development in the Child, by Wilhelm Preyer, in International Education Series, D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1888-1893.

Biography of a Baby, by Milicent W. Shinn, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1900.

The Mental Development of a Child, by Kathleen Carter Moore, Monograph Supplement, No. 3, Oct., 1896, Psychological Review, Princeton, New Jersey.

III

LAWS OF PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

Biological considerations: Prenatal recapitulation of animal progress. Proportions of the body at birth; excessive development of head and trunk; fitted for functions of a feeding animal; exercise confined to big muscle masses; unequal development of parts; greatest growth in first four months; rapid growth of cranial capacity.

Anthropometry: What Galton hoped from measuring people. Over-estimation of the value of size; vast amount of work done; comparatively slight results. The curves of height and weight; periods of rapid and slow growth. When education should be pushed. Boys physically superior to girls, except between ages of eleven or twelve and fifteen or sixteen. Meaning of this period; its treatment and education. Racial differences in growth; need for functional tests.

Conditions favoring good health: Good ancestry; good social conditions, height and weight of children in the classes who have good incomes. Effects of good food, clothing, shelter, freedom from excessive labor, and medical attendance on growth. Exercise, sports, and athletics for boys, for girls.

Relation of physical conditions and intellectual ability: Physical development of imbeciles, irregular, completed at an early age. Results of tests on the relation of size to school efficiency, Porter, Boas, Smedley. Fatigue, its physiological effects; permanent effects of excessive physical fatigue, Marathon races. Intellectual work and fatigue; signs of nervous overstrain.

Relation of the school to health: Underfeeding and bad clothing; problem of feeding children in school; experience of Paris, Berlin, and London. Effect of bad shoes in London. How far should the state correct these evils? Need for medical inspection; its value in stopping contagion, in detecting chronic cases; school nurses; examination of eyes; inspection of teeth, the school dental clinic.

Out-of-door schools; tuberculous children; crippled children.

Playgrounds: Play indispensable to health; limited play facilities in cities, city playgrounds; Chicago recreation centers. The Gary experiment; the Wisconsin attempt to establish rural playgrounds. Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Girl Pioneers.

Teaching hygiene: Compulsory instruction in physiology; treatment of narcotics and alcohol; unsatisfactory results of the effort. Value of forming right physical habits; weakness of day schools in regulating meals, sleep, cleanliness, and exercise. School baths.

Bad American habits: Excess in American life; late hours for children; problems of sleep. Children's parties, bad food, excitement; accomplishments, their cost. Precocity, the Sidis boy; how far children should be pushed. Need for a simple environment in childhood.

Conditions needed to secure healthy children: A new biological or eugenic conscience exalting health. A better distribution of wealth and its opportunities. A reorganization of social life, making each responsible for all. Sound sex instruction.

READING

Pedagogical Anthropology, by Maria Montessori, Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York, 1913. See Chap. I, on *Certain Principles of General Biology*.

Adolescence: Its Psychology, by G. Stanley Hall, D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1904. See first three chapters.

Physical Growth and School Progress, by Bird Thomas Baldwin, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 10, 1914. See also Bulletins 16, 18, 44, 48, and 52, for 1914.

Medical Inspection of Schools, by Luther H. Gulick and Leonard P. Ayres, Charities Publication Committee, New York, 1913.

Experimental Pedagogy and The Psychology of the Child, by Ed. Claparède, Longmans, Green, & Co., 1912.

IV

FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS IN CHILDHOOD

Difficulty in studying emotions: They cannot be repeated, as sensations can; they tend to vanish when one thinks about them; one cannot remember them, as he can sensations. Besides this, one cannot measure them; it is impossible even to say: I am twice as angry as I was before. Theories of emotions are unsettled. One school holds that they are the sum of physical sensibility caused by an experience, or an idea. Another school holds that they accompany, or follow, ideas and produce the physical changes.

Stages in the development of emotions: In infancy, emotions are related mainly to objective conditions; and, owing to the fragmentariness of the subjective life in infancy, they are narrowly egoistic, and very intense, but of short duration. After the age of twelve, the inner life being more organized, the emotions become more subjective, and in place of sudden fears and joys, we have brooding dreads and larger happiness. There is a tendency, too, to altruism. In adult years, the mind being organized, most of our emotions are inhibited by experience. If conditions are right, the greatest emotions of life may come in maturity.

Influences modifying emotions: Nervous conditions have much to do with emotional states. A disorganized nervous system is the prey of fear, anger, and the like. Ignorance leaves one subject to his emotions. Contagion plays a large part; when nearly all the people are afraid it is difficult for the individual to escape fear.

Effects of emotions: Happy emotions invigorate the physical life and quicken the intelligence. Depressing emotions are bad for both health and thinking.

Fear: Extended studies made on fear by Hall and Mosso. Fear is the natural guard and corrective for curiosity; objects which excite this emotion; abnormal developments in childhood, fear of the dark, of animals, of peculiar people, of imagined monsters. Values and dangers of fear

in childhood. Correctives for excessive fear, frank facing of the danger, training of the will, general intelligence. The pleasures of fear; they vanish when fear passes the threshold of pain; their value in children's play; the tragic drama; the grotesque in art.

Educational use of emotions: They have been much neglected, but need to be cultivated, mainly by indirection. The humanities are rich in emotional appeal, literature, and biography; the sciences are weak. For young children we need small, changing emotions; for youth, large, out-going, brooding emotions are possible.

READING

Principles of Psychology, by William James, Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1890, Vol. II., p. 415.

Expression of the Emotions in Men and Animals, by Charles Darwin, D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1896.

Fear, by Angelo Mosso, Longmans, Green, & Co., New York, 1896.

Fear in Childhood, by Agnes Holbrook; and *Children and Ghosts*, by Louise Maitland, in Barnes's *Studies in Education*, Vol. II, pp. 18, 53, and 175.

SENSE DEVELOPMENT IN CHILDREN

Gradual development of sense organs: In low forms of animal life sensibility is distributed over the whole body, micro-organisms. Slow development of sound spots, sight spots, touch centers, etc. Peculiar developments in the animal world, multiplied eyes, antennæ, development of scent in moths, in dogs, "direction sense" in pigeons. Our present senses, touch, sight, sound, taste, and smell, temperature sense, and weight sense. The remaining undifferentiated sensibility; possibility of further sense development; of occult senses.

The mechanism of sense: End organs, afferent nerves, central ganglia, localization of sense centers, efferent nerves. The registration of sense impressions; their varying power in memory. How far sensations give us knowledge; their differing values. Curious case of Helen Keller.

Development of the senses in children: Sensibility in pre-natal period; at least sensitive to cold. The rush of sensations at birth. Taste best developed of an infant's senses. Sight; lower animals born blind; children but slowly master the mechanism of the eye so that they can really see; early attraction to bright and glittering things. Hearing, very dull at birth. Smell, one of the least valuable senses for purposes of thought, seems to be disappearing in man. Touch and muscular sense; great value of the latter for knowledge. Extreme sense activity of children.

Form, color, and music: Great value of these for education. Form sense measures the balance of control in the individual. Steps in the development of color interest; color combinations; color blindness. Music, its relation to physical movement, physical rhythm, dancing; reaction of music on the character. Plato's theory of musical education.

Defective senses: Imperfect vision, its bearing on health and learning; need of testing all children; should glasses

be furnished by the state? The blind; how far the power of their other senses is increased; methods of training. The deaf; how far they can interpret vibration through tactual sense; must be taught to read the lips; the day school versus the asylum.

Educational value of sense training: Probably over-estimated. Possibility of increasing the power of any sense, probably limited to first three years of life. Possibility of transferring sense skill reached in one field to another field is slight. The value of all-around sense training for knowledge is uncertain; probably of little value for mathematics, logic, and other formal studies depending on mental concepts. Work of Pestalozzi, Seguin and Montessori. Large composite states of sensibility furnish us most of our knowledge and happiness. What the training of the eye really means.

READING

The Psychic Life of Micro-Organisms, by Alfred Binet, The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, 1903.

Social Life in the Insect World, by J. H. Fabre, Century Co., New York, 1912.

The Montessori Method, by Maria Montessori, Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York, 1912. See Chapters XIII and XIV, on education of the senses, also *Pedagogical Anthropology*, by the same author and publisher.

The Mental and Physical Life of School Children, by Peter Sandiford, Longmans, Green, & Co., New York, 1913. See Chap. VII, on *The End Organs and Sensation*.

VI

HOW CHILDREN THINK

Stages in thinking: When a sensation is received into the mind of a child it does not necessarily mean that he will think about it. If he does, the sensation is first registered in its proper place in the nervous system; it is then connected with something in the external world, through perception, which is supposed to cause it; it is compared with ideas already registered, or with other new sensations; it is then established in a group of memory images through generalization, and this new concept may then be worked up in a larger generalization or used for identifying and interpreting other sensations. This process is never really completed until the new idea has been expressed in some way. The impulse that came in as sensation must travel out as expression to complete the arc. Trained minds select and work up significant sensations, and discard the non-essential; weak minds get lost in the midst of their unclassified possessions.

Development of children's observation: A young child's interest flits from object to object and so he does not see large wholes. Perez's study on a child in a cathedral; Young's study of children's journeys, children who have been to Switzerland seldom mention the mountains, and those who have been to the seashore do not mention the sea. Small children are attracted by glitter and motion. Careful observation requires expression; "A pencil is the best microscope." Agassiz. Ease with which a child's observation may be misled through suggestion.

Qualities that interest children: Studies by Binet, Barnes, and Shaw; children were asked what they meant by simple words, such as knife, bread, and dog. They seldom gave qualities of form, color, structure, or substance. They almost always gave the use of the object; and in the second place, they gathered it under a larger term: "Bread is food." A considerable number also gave its characteristic action, which is allied to use.

Generalization: Children have very slight power of generalization. They remark on differences, and especially on peculiar cases, long before they notice the general law. An ignorant traveler sees oddly dressed people and remarks on strange things to eat; the trained mind sees general tendencies in industry, or in social observances. Of course, the general fact is unconsciously observed first, or the variant could not be recognized as peculiar.

Value of thinking: It enables us to profit by the experience of the past; and it leads us to new knowledge, thereby broadening our world. But, in actual conduct, most of our actions are habitual and unconscious. The feelings are the aristocrats of the subjective world; and even highly trained people may think one thing and do another, because they feel like it.

Educational applications: Objects to be studied should be common to the child's life. Living things are better than dead ones. Subjects should be varied, especially with young children. Expression should always follow observation through gesture, drawing, manual work, or oral and written language.

READING

A Study of Children's Interests, by Earl Barnes, in Barnes's *Studies in Education*, Vol. I, p. 203. See also *Children's Travel Interests*, by Sarah Young, in the same volume, p. 338.

The Mental and Physical Life of School Children, by Peter Sandiford, Longmans, Green, & Co., New York, 1913. See Chap. X, on Association.

Fundamentals of Child Study, by Edwin A. Kirkpatrick, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1904. See Chap. XIV, on *Development of Intellect*.

Experimental Pedagogy and The Psychology of the Child, by Ed. Claparède, Longmans, Green, & Co., 1912.

VII

PHYSICALLY AND MENTALLY DEFECTIVE CHILDREN

Classes to be considered: Overworked children; neglected children, underfed, badly clothed, dirty, sick, misused; deformed children, cripples, humpback, clubfoot, infantile paralysis; chronic invalids, adenoids, tuberculosis, weak heart, Bright's disease; temporary diseases, colds, measles, diphtheria, etc.; defects of special senses, deaf and blind; nervous wreckage, epileptics, chorea, neurotics; the morally weak, incorrigibles, sex perverts; mental incapacity, the dull, morose, imbeciles, idiots.

Proper attitude of the state to these cases: It should not seek to play the philanthropist; it should protect itself against ignorance, disease, and bad citizens for the future. It should seek to make every one self-supporting, so far as possible. It should secure justice to all.

Function of the school: The common school should be a clearing house for all the children of the state. Aided by medical experts, it should select the unfit and try them out, where necessary, in special classes. Those requiring individual treatment should be gathered in special schools, or, if hopeless, segregated in colonies. The school should not be required to permanently supervise and care for these classes; custodial colonies should be established.

Final treatment of these classes: Overworked children should be protected by legislation, and inspection, backed by public opinion; there is danger of excessive interference in this direction. Neglected children should be protected from abuse, and fed, and clothed when necessary; but, when possible, the home should be strengthened, rather than broken up; widows' pensions. Deformed children should be gathered in day schools, under care of nurses, carried back and forth, when necessary, and well educated in special schools.

Temporary diseases: These should be detected by the medical inspectors and the family should care for the cases.

Chronic invalids should be educated in special day schools. The blind and deaf should be trained in special day schools, supported by the state, not the locality; danger of asylums.

Nature of mental weakness: Dullness, in all of its stages, from backwardness to idiocy, is rather a slowing up of nervous process than a disease, like epilepsy or insanity. It may be caused by accident; or it may be an after-effect of diseases like rickets, convulsions, or scarlet fever; doubtless syphilis in the parents is responsible in many cases. The feeble-minded can be improved, but not cured; and idiocy and imbecility are inheritable. We have at least 200,000 feeble-minded children in the United States.

Treatment of the feeble-minded: Doubtful cases should be tried out through special schools connected with the state schools. The milder cases can be improved by physiological education along the lines laid down by Edward Seguin; nature of this training. Value of the Binet test. Remarkable work being done at Vineland, New Jersey. All the severer cases should be segregated and sometimes sterilized. Colonies should be formed and the defectives should end their lives and their generations in them.

READING

Feeble-Mindedness, Its Causes and Consequences, by Herbert H. Goddard, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1914. See also *The Kallikak Family*, by the same author and publisher, 1912.

The Relation of Physical Defect to School Progress, by Leonard P. Ayers, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1909.

The Psychology of Mentally Deficient Children, by Naomi Norsworthy, Science Press, New York, 1906.

The Mental Health of the School Child, by J. E. Wallace Wallin, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1914. See Chap. XVIII.

VIII

GROWTH OF LANGUAGE

Value of language: Language is any means of communicating thought or feeling, or of awakening it in others. Human development is possible only through language. Without words to label sensations and objects, and others to gather these into groups, and still others to modify the groups and show their relations in terms of action, we should be simply crushed under a mass of sensations, and progress would never go far.

Growth of language in infancy: Children, from the first, make gestures and inarticulate cries. These gurglings and cries prepare the vocal cords for their later work. The children recognize words before they can use them. Imitation of words; order in which sounds develop. Order in which the parts of speech develop. Rapidity of growth in vocabulary. How content grows into words; perfecting content through elimination, addition, substitution.

Extent of vocabulary: Gale reports a boy who, in one day, when two years old, used 805 different words. Trettien records 1,068 different words used by a child two and one-half years old in one hour. Shakespeare is said to have used a vocabulary of about 24,000 words; the English Bible has only 7,209 different words. Children have a steadily increasing vocabulary, which probably amounts to from 10,000 to 15,000 words, when leaving school.

Growth of concepts in school years: Our study on a list of words; proportion of children at different ages having no content for a particular word, an entirely wrong content, a partially right content, a good working content. For words like emperor, monk, or armor, about one-third of the children in elementary schools have no content; or a wrong content; a little more than one-third have a partially right content; and less than one-third have a right content. Need for perfecting the content of type words in each year of school through appeals to experience, pic-

tures, and discussions. Value and limitations of work with the dictionary.

Written language: Pictures are the first written language; children early tend to develop symbols in their drawing; and they naturally pass through the picture-writing stage. Methods of teaching reading and writing; alphabetical method; phonetic, or synthetic method; word, sentence, or analytic method; an eclectic method agrees best with the normal development of a child's mind, for he grows by alternate synthesis and analysis.

Problems in later language study: Expression should follow experience, not precede it. Content versus form; there is little use in getting the form ready for an undeveloped content. Exactness versus fluency; these should have alternate emphasis. Grammatical and other rules should serve as correction in learning English; they are of slight value as guides, at least before the twelfth year. English spelling is an unfortunate but necessary evil; it tends to destroy intelligence and discourage reasoning; it should be mastered early. Penmanship is not language and it should be treated as manual training.

READING

The Physical and Mental Development of School Children, by Peter Sandiford, Longmans, Green, & Co., New York, 1913. See Chap. XIX, on *The Development of Language in Children*.

Psychology of the Language Interest of Children, by A. W. Tretien, in *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. XI, p. 113.

How Words Get Content, by Earl Barnes, in *Barnes's Studies in Education*, Vol. II, p. 43.

Psychology of Childhood, by Frederick Tracy, D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1899.

MENTAL IMAGES AND IMAGINATION

Steps in imagination: Ideas are first gained through sensation and perception; they are then registered and associated in related groups. They may afterward be recalled as originally associated; this is memory. But they may also be reorganized in selected series that make poetry, romance, or falsehood; or they may be jumbled in fancy; or they may troop past in dreams. These latter forms of recall constitute imagination.

Peculiarities of children's imagination: In childhood, the mind, like the body, is very active. The ideas are but slightly organized, and so they crowd before consciousness in all kinds of odd combinations. In this disorder, some ideas are put together in combinations that strike adults as brilliant imagination; they are mainly accidents of disorder. Creative imagination demands a well-ordered and active mind, stocked with vivid experience, and having a strong sense of universal truths.

Imaginary companions: These may be created out of nothing or they may gather around tangible objects, such as a little shawl. These creations may change from day to day, or they may remain persistent for years. If accepted by the parents, they may raise difficult questions, for the child will treat them as real beings, and he may even charge his own offences to them. Children often shift their own personality for another, having a name and definite qualities, and they may live back and forth in these different characters.

Playthings: These generally resemble the objects they represent but, being smaller, the child can work his will upon them. Good playthings should be strong and well made, capable of varied relation to the child, and so simple that imagination can work about them. Expensive and highly specialized toys are bad for the child.

Value of imagination: It enables us to escape from the limitations of the actual and to build for ourselves ideal

forms of experience. Through painting, poetry, drama, and romance we live as we like. If these creative arts are well selected they lift, not only their creator but all who share them, to a life of deepest significance. As hypothesis, imagination leads science in all of its forward movements.

Dangers of imagination: If too much encouraged, it divorces the individual from the actual world in which, nevertheless, he must continue to live, and he becomes impractical, inefficient, and discontented. It may make us blind to truth; and if it deals with base images it may corrupt and spoil the character.

Educational value of imagination: The chaotic mass of images in a child's mind must be reduced to order. But this order must be not only the order of fact, but also the order of regulated imagination. Mere dreaming is not to be encouraged; but abundant exercise must be found for creative imagination.

READING

The Scientific Use of the Imagination, by John Tyndall, Longmans, Green, & Co., 1870.

The Invisible Playmate and W. V. Her Book, by William Canton, Stone & Kimball, New York, 1897.

Studies on Children's Stories and Poetry and *Studies on Children's Drawings*, by Earl Barnes, in Barnes's *Studies in Education*.

Distribution and Functions of Mental Imagery, by George Herbert Betts, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 26, Teachers' College, New York, 1909.

Studies of Childhood, by James Sully, D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1896. See Chap. II, on *The Age of Imagination*.

IMITATION AND SUGGESTION

The psychology of imitation: All sensations, after registering themselves as memory images, tend to pass over into corresponding expressions. Memories are revived sensations and hence they also tend to pass over into expression. Whatever one thinks that he tends to do; muscle reading. Acts performed before me give me sensations, and words awaken memories of sensations that tend to pass into action. Consequently whatever I see done, or hear suggested, that I tend to do.

Stages in development of imitation: The safety of animals depends on their imitating their parents. "The imitative faculty makes men educable"; and "Example is the first great teacher." Children, like primitive men, dance with dancing leaves, shout with the storm, and sink under the depressing influence of fog. As we grow older, we select our admirations and inhibit our expressions. Contagion of mob mind, power of oratory, "suggestive" ideas.

Conditions favoring imitation and suggestion: What we love that we follow; passivity leaves us open to imitation, advertising; repetition incites imitation. Opposing conditions: Dislike sometimes makes us do the opposite of what is suggested; alertness and individuality favor individual action.

Suggestion: Even when a person is awake, he may surrender his personal control, under certain conditions, so that some one else can inject an idea into his mind which he may accept uncritically and carry into effect automatically. This process is called suggestion; in its extreme form it is called hypnotism.

Meaning and value of individuality: Strong individuals refuse to act in a particular manner, just because others do so. They appeal to their own liking, reason, or caprice. They refuse to follow conventions; they wear clothes that are not fashionable; paint pictures in new ways; sing new songs; form and state new theories. Individuality keeps

the world young, and initiates all advanced ideas. It is a priceless treasure, brought to earth with each new child, and it is generally lost. On the other hand, it is dangerous, if abnormal or freakish, and it tends to destroy the accumulated habits which represent the treasure of the ages.

Educational value of imitation: It is very necessary in early years; it makes good habits possible; it relieves our higher faculties by relegating non-essentials to lower reflexes; it passes on our acquisitions to new generations. All educational environment should be worthy of imitation, including the teacher. Genius should be conserved.

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XI

HABITS AND INSTINCTS

How the lower nerve centers work: Nature of reflex action, its relation to the will. The action of the lower nerve centers may be inherited, as in swallowing; or it may be educated along lines already made easy by racial practice, as in walking; or it may be developed to meet new needs, as in typewriting. Nature of instinct: First an act is accepted or chosen; then repeated until it becomes a habit in the individual; then repeated in individuals until it becomes an instinct of the species. How far is the original choice determined by conditions of environment?

Part which imitation plays in training these centers: We may consciously reproduce an act which we are compelled to do, as in learning to write; or which seems desirable, as in learning to ride a bicycle; or we may unconsciously imitate manners, inflections of the voice, tricks of behavior. Need of having good models before children. Strong personalities may lead weaker ones to imitate them until the result is a body of habits which is artificial, and unfitted to its possessor.

Effect of neglecting these centers: If education of the lower nerve centers is neglected, and habits are not formed, action is unstable. Constant dependence on the higher nerve centers makes us smart and shallow. Reflexes give us economy of effort and leave the higher centers free for their legitimate work.

Overemphasizing the lower centers: The individual becomes formal and dull; initiative is destroyed; originality is discouraged; and general progress stopped. Absolute monarchies, privileged classes, fixed theologies always favor this education of memory, habit, and reflex action.

Danger of mixing higher and lower control: Constant interference with servants; traveling with parcels; walking in a strange city. If we switch off the reflex control, we frequently forget to switch it back again and then we disorder the habit. Such action breaks up personality and

makes fussy people. Need for occasionally calling back reflexes to see that they are working well, breathing, walking, expenditure.

Things not to be made habitual: Religion, if it becomes automatic, is dead formalism. Literature requires a constant readjustment of the spirit. Friendship is worthless if automatic. Letter-writing, except for business, should always be in process of readjustment to new conditions and larger growth.

Applications to education: Constant demand of the public that the schools shall return to the teaching of fundamentals. We cannot return to fundamentals, for the past taught vastly more useless information than we do. Urgent need of going forward to fundamentals. All that we teach, including physical training, reading, spelling, writing, number, science, manners, morals, art, religion, should be carefully divided into two parts. That which is steadily used, and not subject to any considerable change, should be automatically learned and reduced to simple reflexes. What this would be in physical training, arithmetic, geography, history. This should be mastered through drill; children's love for drill, if rightly handled; steps in good drill. The second part of the curriculum, subject to change and not constantly used, should be kept in the higher centers and not permitted to become reflex.

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MEMORY IN CHILDHOOD

Nature of mental images: Every sensation registers itself in the nerve centers as an image; it also tends to relate itself to the images associated with it through connections of time, place, etc. How far we remember everything we experience. Practically the mind is written over and over again with records. A child forgets nearly everything that happens before he is three years old. What this forgetting means. It is difficult to remember without association of images, and language labels are indispensable.

Conditions that strengthen a memory image: Vividness of the sensation; this may be due to the sensation or to the condition of the mind; attention greatly increases the brilliancy. Association of the image with other images; if a person has a striking personality, is dressed in a striking manner, has a peculiar voice and an arresting name, we are more liable to remember him. The nature of the nervous system that receives the impression; this is far the most important element in memory and it can be changed but little by training.

Development of memory: Few images become permanent before the age of six or seven. After this, the memory for both auditory and visual images increases until just before puberty, when there is a slowing up, and after that it increases to the age of sixteen or seventeen. There seems to be little relation between the development of memory and general intelligence. In his work on adolescence, G. Stanley Hall has summarized the many studies made on memory, with his usual thoroughness.

Value of sense impressions for purposes of memory: Visual images are most easily recalled; but, for some people, auditory images have a special appeal. Smell gives us images difficult to recall, but strong in associations. Tastes are not easily recalled. Touch and general organic sensibility are the only sources of Helen Keller's memories.

Remarkable memories: History is filled with instances of remarkable memories. Avicenna is said to have repeated the entire Koran by rote at ten years of age. Calculating prodigies depend largely on memory; Jacques Inaudi performed mathematical calculations before the Sorbonne in Paris for an hour; he then repeated all the numbers he had been given, without an error. Waiters and porters often remember, years afterward, patrons whom they have seen but once. Statesmen, politicians, and detectives find the ability to remember faces and names of great value.

Educating the memory: Probably the retentive power of the nervous system is not much increased by training. Images can be fixed more permanently by increasing the attention and by repetition, but inattentive drill is of slight value. Systems for strengthening the memory by artificial associations are of very slight value.

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XIII

THE GROWTH OF PERSONALITY

The riddle of personality: Universal feeling that we have a self, independent of body and mind. It is something which sits up aloft and guides our conduct. Science says that our physical and mental qualities are determined by our ancestors. The combination of paternal and maternal elements gives us a certain height, complexion, figure; it determines our energy; it gives us a certain power of observation, memory, imagination. Is personality anything more than the sum of all these qualities? If there is also a spiritual ego, beyond this, whence does it come? Is it struck out at conception; or has it gone through previous incarnations? Bearing of these questions on education.

Location of the ego: Earlier attempts to locate it in the pineal gland, the liver, the heart, and the brain. With a baby, it seems to be in his mouth; that is the center of attraction and activity with him. After a while it radiates out over his body, into his hands, his feet, and his hair. Then it takes possession of certain things, his nursing bottle or crib, and of certain people, his mother, or nurse. Then it takes possession of his home and family, of his street, his school, his town, his church, his party, country, humanity.

The hungers, or instincts, lead the spirit out: An idiot, with no driving instincts, never goes out. His personality remains confined to his body and largely to his mouth. Hunger for food leads the normal child out to varied experience; activity broadens his life through space; curiosity leads him, even where he can never go, through the power of ideas; desire for property leads him to infuse himself into things until he owns them; social hungers lead him to infuse himself into people, singly and in groups; beauty leads him out to art; worship up to God.

Restraining power of fear: Fear is the safety-brake on conduct. Without fear, the hungers of life would lead

children to destruction. Curiosity would lead them into fire, water, and over precipices. Fear of loss checks acquisitiveness; fear of rebuff checks social ambition; fear of ridicule checks egotism; fear of public criticism checks artistic effort. We need to educate fear, not destroy it.

Lines of growth: Human development moves steadily from the concrete to the abstract; from the near to the far. When Miss Young asked large groups of children what they would take if they could have any one choice granted, they advanced steadily with age from transient to more permanent things. Miss Cash found, in her study on children and caged birds, that the children advanced with age from cruelty to sympathy. All of our studies show a growth from selfishness to altruism, with a recrudescence of earlier forms at the age of eleven or twelve.

Relation of child to parent: The parent must restrain the child and the child must gain power through struggling to escape. This struggle is most intense in infancy, at puberty, and in the later 'teens. The child who does not fully escape at maturity is unfortunate. Authority can only slowly be delegated to brothers and sisters. The school makes a good transition.

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XIV

CHILDREN'S SENSE OF TIME

How we sense time: Whether time is an objective reality or a subjective condition of thought, it remains true that we are conscious of it only through the series of phenomena that fills it. Unoccupied time cannot be experienced by us, for our physical life, of breathing and other bodily functions, always goes on while we live.

Measures of time: Daylight and darkness are the most obvious measures of time, and they determine the day; the moon marks the month; and the seasons determine the year. Festivals are early devised to mark off the years; sacred days come in to divide time into weeks, or to mark the months. Divisions of the day, beyond day and night, are measured by the progress of the sun. Later, we divide time into units which are not marked by any constantly visible phenomenon, unless we provide some measuring instrument, like a clock

How do young children approach time? Recurring hunger and sleep, and the periodicities of the body and of the family life all tend to break time into regular units in the child's mind. "Present and past," "now," "by and by," and "never" are understood as early as the child talks, while "yesterday," "to-day," and "to-morrow" quickly follow. Some vague content early gathers around "second," "minute," "hour," "day," and "year." For any considerable expression and understanding of time we must have numbers.

Studies on children's sense of time: Their ability to measure seconds, minutes, hours, without seeing a clock. Difference in results when the children are occupied, when they are unoccupied, when blindfolded. Attitude of 2,536 children toward punishment of a child for failing to go home at a certain assigned hour. Seventy-eight per cent. thought punishment just; only 13 per cent. realized that the offence was unconscious.

Children's sense of historical time: The study by Mary Shel-

don Barnes shows, at all the school ages, a very slight but steady interest in knowing the time when historical events occur. In Miss Patterson's study on the meaning of a date, like 1895, she found the sense of historical time altogether lacking in children of seven and very slight up to twelve.

Educational applications: It would be helpful to school children if they were given some drill in recognizing short periods of time. Dates, more than a lifetime removed from the present, are meaningless to children under the age of twelve. Special effort should be made to give the children a series of significant events that would establish a basis for chronology in their minds.

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THE SENSE OF LAW

Origin of law: Law arises out of obedience to environment. In the animal world, it becomes habit, which is finally transmitted to offspring as instinct. A cat is born with a hundred laws written in its nervous system; it must walk stealthily, catch prey, etc.

Among men: Men become self-conscious and obey not only instinct, but each other. The first laws are commands; or decisions, following particular acts. There thus grows up a community law, generally resting in religious sanctions. Later, these decisions are formulated, and then written; and they become the sacred possessions of the tribe.

Racial experiences repeated by children: Infants, like all young animals, obey their instincts. They suck, cry, and keep moving. Later they fight, and obey.

Commands of elders: Until the age of puberty, individual commands largely take the place of formal regulations. Children expect to adjust their lives to other individuals and to the family group. Adult example is effective; but children copy their elders less than is usually thought. The parent carries ten dollars in his pocket, goes out when he pleases, stays up until ten o'clock, and smokes, or drinks tea and coffee, if he wants to do so. The child recognizes that he cannot drink tea nor coffee, and he must go to bed when he is told to do so. It is the age of personal allegiance, commands, and decisions. Little children do not expect even to be treated like older children; they demand only fair play. This applies only to well-trained children. Spoiled children drink tea and coffee, smoke, and demand grown-up privileges at any age.

Delegated authority: Children recognize delegated authority in the hands of adults of equal standing with the parents, aunts, grandmothers, or the like; but they generally resent the rule of servants. It is with great difficulty that they submit to the rule of other children. Of

146 children were asked whether a child, when told to leave alone his sister, should stop her scratching the table, only 20 per cent. would stop her by force, while 80 per cent. would wait and report the matter to the mother. Children more easily accept the decision of a group of children and, at about the age of ten, they evolve gang rule. They readily accept the rule of teachers and the police.

Slow recognition of general laws: The tests we have made show that when confronted with a problem where a law has been broken the children tend to substitute the individual decision, or some personal authority, for the law. Studies on a burglar and on school yard disobedience.

Educational applications: Children should be related to some adult who can exercise authority wisely. General regulations and laws should be avoided. When authority is delegated, as to teachers, it should be consistently upheld by those who delegated it. At about the age of twelve, children should be increasingly brought into contact with laws, first as family and school regulations, and then as community laws.

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SUPERSTITIONS OF CHILDHOOD

What superstition is: A superstition is a belief in an inadequate cause. It is simply imperfect reasoning; and since men must reason they will constantly create superstitions, when the causes are obscure or unknown. The Doctrine of Evolution is now science; it may later become a superstition. To some people, the belief in vaccination is science; to others it is superstition.

Superstition in history: When men began to reason, they had little real knowledge and so they made up causes for every-day phenomena. Being themselves the most efficient causes they knew, they conceived manlike powers that produced the effects they could not otherwise explain. Primitive religions owe much to these superstitions; myths and mythology grow out of them. The first effects of these made-up causes is to encourage thinking; later, when they become fixed and generally accepted, they discourage reasoning. Accepted as authority, they fight new truth and retard development. Old ideas in theology, science, law, or society, always hate new ones. Superstitions of the ancient world, of the Greeks and Romans, of early Christianity, of the Middle Ages. Baneful effects of the superstition of witchcraft.

Superstition in every-day life: Dr. Dresslar found that of 7,176 superstitions reported by 875 people, 3,951 were disbelieved; 2,132 were partially believed; and 1,093 were believed; 45 per cent. were wholly or partially believed and 55 per cent. were rejected. In a study on Idaho teachers, I found 18 per cent., of the cases reported, wholly or partially believed and 82 per cent. disbelieved. Almost every one cherishes some superstitions, and does not like to break them; in many parts of the country rank superstitions, like the belief in witches, still flourish. There is a wide border line between the known and the unknown, where it is uncertain whether the belief is science or super-

stition. We are especially prone to superstition in such matters as weather, health, and love affairs.

Children develop and accept superstitions: When children begin to reason they create superstitions; not having learned to endure the agony of a suspended judgment, they demand causes everywhere and easily accept superstitious explanations. Myths flourish; fairies, monsters, and Santa Claus have their period of absolute acceptance. In Miss Vostrovsky's study on pin luck, with 624 children, she found that at eight years of age 35 per cent. of the children accepted the belief and 20 per cent. rejected it. Disbelief grew steadily until, at the age of sixteen, it amounted to 80 per cent. of the children, while belief had nearly vanished at that age.

Educational considerations: Young children need the harmless superstitions of myths, fairies, and Santa Claus, as steps to understanding the larger forces of nature and of society. If they are not overemphasized, the children will make the transition from these superstitions to rationalism as easily and naturally as they pass from creeping to walking. When experience and observation can be used to set aside a superstition, the transition will prove good training. But we all need to keep a sympathetic attitude toward primitive explanations of the unknown, both for the sake of poetry and as possible hypotheses.

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GROWTH OF REASONING PROCESSES

Reasoning is involved in nearly all of our mental processes: Even in the act of perception we declare that a certain memory image equals a horse; then we declare that another new impression equals the memory image in question, and conclude that the new impression also represents a horse. This unconscious reasoning runs all through life; but it is not important in organizing new knowledge until we reach some maturity.

Period of collecting: About the age of eight, children begin to make collections of objects on lines of common color, size, place, time, or circumstance. Mere collection culminates at the age of ten. At eleven or twelve, interest in the things is stronger than in the series. After the age of twelve, interest passes on to the relations of the things, their classification and explanation. Thus at first a child may gather cigar bands; after ten, he becomes interested in birds' eggs and nests; after twelve, he cares for souvenirs, or party programs. The collecting instinct makes a good beginning for many subjects of study.

The age of acceptance: Young children rest in authority and readily believe almost anything they are told, if presented seriously by those whom they trust. Their small experience and immature powers predispose them to myths, fairies, and the like. They seldom hunt for causes and their understanding of language is so weak that they accept almost any answers, if they do not understand the words.

The reasoning hunger: By twelve, the children need general concepts and laws under which they can gather up their varied experience. They therefore seek for causes and they accept even superstition eagerly. They also seek to use general laws in interpreting their own daily lives.

Centers about which reasoning gathers: In the early period, reasoning gathers around words and their content. Argu-

ments and debates turn on different understandings of words and phrases. In the scholastic period of the twelfth century we have a similar attitude of mind. What would happen if an irresistible force struck an immovable obstacle? Natural phenomena also awaken much reasoning; why are some flowers yellow and others blue? The time for investigation comes later. Religious problems make active centers for reasoning, if it is allowed. If Judas was born to betray his Master why should he be blamed? Social adjustments give rise to endless confusion. Why should a man who never works have luxuries, while a hard-working man lacks food for his family? The reasoning of this time is mainly deductive; induction comes later.

Classical vs. scientific studies: This time of readjustment in belief needs wise handling. Children are the greatest radicals and at the same time the greatest conservatives on earth. Classical studies tend to discourage reasoning. Terminations are as they are because the best authorities use them. Scientific philological reasons do not appeal at this age, because of lack of knowledge on which to base them. Vested interests of all kinds have always favored classical studies. Natural sciences lead to heresy in religion and politics.

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XVIII

GROWTH OF SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING

Nature of the social hunger: Alone we come into the world, and alone we leave it; but in the passage across the stage we long for fellowship. Left to himself, any man would welcome companionship with an imbecile or a broken beggar. Ostracism paralyzes all the forces of life; outlawry crushes the best in man. Solitary confinement is one of the most terrible punishments known; sheep herders often go mad.

Social impulse among animals: Nearly all animals live with their kind, swarms of bees, flocks of birds, schools of fish. The forces that compel animals to live together are need for protection, wild geese and cattle; getting food, wolves; sex impulse, seals. It varies greatly in animals, from eagles to ants and bees.

Beginnings of social activity in babyhood: From the first, the baby knows the difference between a lap and a crib. He early turns to other babies and to animals; when a year old he ignores his elders, but swarms outward to his peers. Social instinct differs greatly in children, some are naturally genial, companionable, and good mixers; others are shy, or indifferent. Excessive egotism of small children inhibits social action; need of kindergarten training.

The gang period: This begins, with boys, about the age of ten. They are brought together through the driving need for fellowship that will make group activity possible at a later time. This activity includes group games and such tribal industries as hunting, fishing, building boats and rafts, going to ponds or into the woods, building huts. It also includes such predatory activities as plaguing people, fighting, destroying property, and stealing. Girls at the same age form sets; boys and girls instinctively work apart at this time.

Blossoming of social forces at puberty: The larger self; growth of altruism. From twelve on, the organizations be-

come more formal and persistent. The schools have never used this force to advantage. High school fraternities and sororities; their evil tendency through massing of social groups, secret meetings, school politics; their suppression is best accomplished through using the social instinct otherwise.

Education of social instincts: The organization of the school as a student body, with a special group to act as an executive committee; matters to come before such a body. Athletic societies should be subject to the whole student body; musical societies, debating clubs, camera clubs, etc. Dancing is valuable because subject to set rules; should be in daytime; women of the community to act as patronesses; only group dancing allowed. Need for social training in a democracy.

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XIX

LEADERSHIP

Place of leadership in early society: In the past, leaders were supposed to originate ideas, initiate movements, gather a following, train it to their point of view, and then create new conditions and institutions. In the traditions of primitive society it is a divinity, or a hero, who founds the city, establishes laws, settles government, wins a war, or invents writing, music, or dancing; Romulus; Moses; Lycurgus; Orpheus. Thomas Carlyle in his *Heroes and Hero Worship* has the same view.

The modern view of leadership: The genetic view of society minimizes the value of individual leadership. We see that governments and religions grow; and they cannot go far ahead of the development of the people. The recognition of at least some degree of economic determinism also limits both the group and its leaders. We have also learned how tradition gathers around personality, blending under one name the virtues and acts of many people. And yet we recognize that individual variants may give us leaders of incalculable value for all the purposes of life.

What makes leadership: The leader must have courage, even daring, a strong will, and self-esteem, for he must be able to stand alone. He must have vision and inventiveness, for he must lead the way. He must have a keen sense of values in others, that he may select able assistants. He leads through affirmation, repetition, and contagion.

Loyalty among children: In their weakness and absence of a sense of law, and with their strong gregarious instinct, children naturally attach themselves strongly to persons. They love to lead and they love to follow. Leadership with them, as with savages, is largely a matter of strength. The boy who can lick the others, jump farther, or do more daring things, becomes captain. Intellectual supremacy counts for little. Discipline is maintained mainly by

force and fear, though if the leader has a sense of fair play it helps him in the long run.

Leadership through prestige: About the age of twelve, various forms of what we may call made-up leadership become important. Social position begins to be recognized; wealth and the possession of a fine home, servants, and carriages, may give a child an enviable position. A little later, the way one wears his clothes, his manners, intellectual ability, or marked self-control give him a position of prominence.

Two kinds of leaders in America: The masses admire strenuous characters who bluster, and who also deliver the goods; the political boss. The more intelligent class admires and follows intelligent, self-controlled, and devoted men, like Goethals. A democracy must work to increase the second class.

Training leaders: Teach ideals just ahead of the group; teach heroes daringly, "A diamond with a flaw is better than a perfect pebble." Recognize leadership in the home and in the school; give it its head; give it opportunity for expression through varied organizations. Emphasize general excellence; moral excellence may give us prigs; intellectual ability may make exploiters; physical strength may make brutes. Work for character; praise it; and give it room to act.

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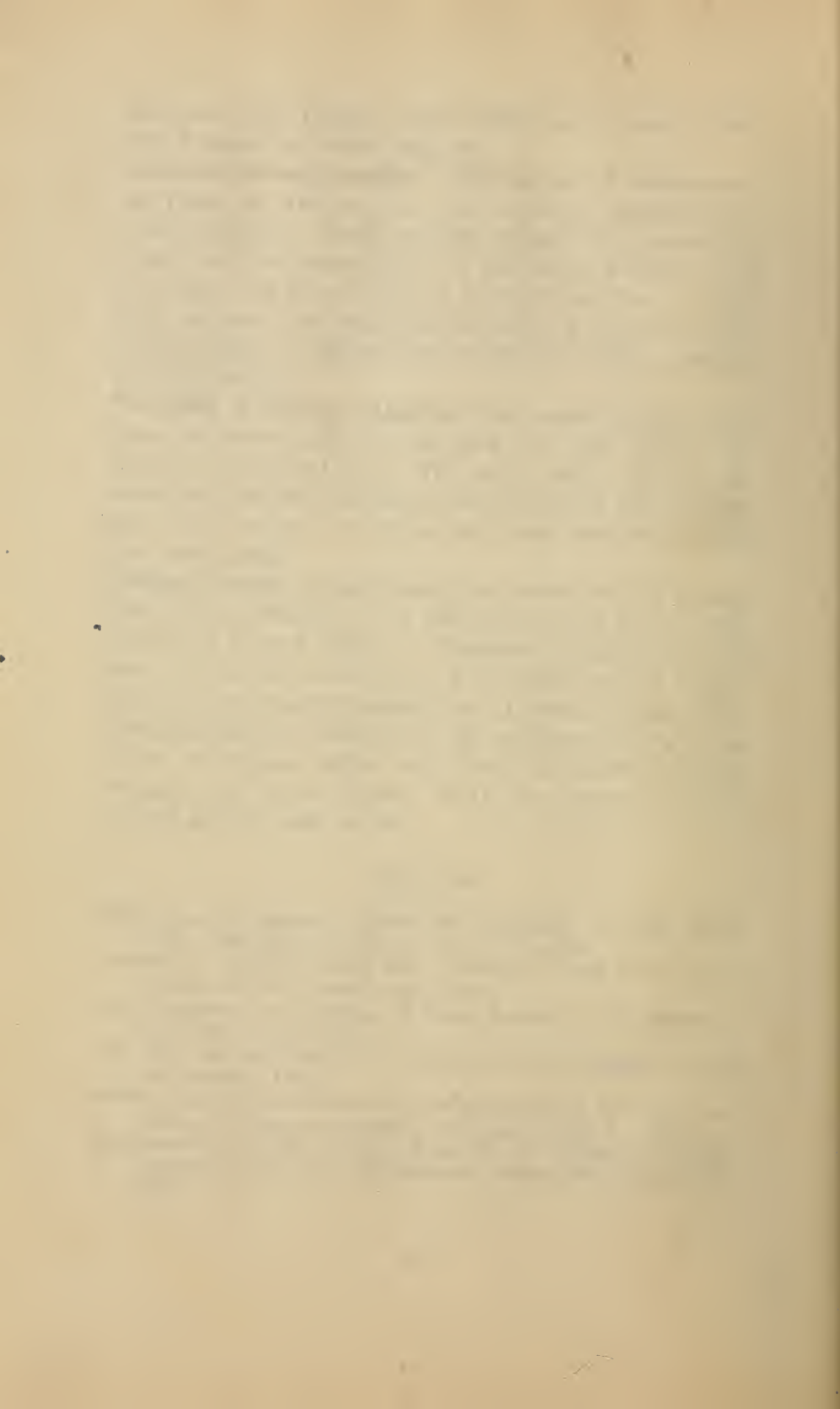
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DEVELOPMENT OF THE MORAL NATURE

The moral nature: It is composed of two factors, the hunger for righteousness which tells us we ought; and the moral judgment which tells us what we ought to do. Everywhere in history we find individuals and groups arrayed against each other, bent on mutual destruction, and often both sides are driven forward by a fierce hunger for righteousness. We used to call this driving power conscience, and we imagined that it not only commanded us to do right but that it also told us what was right. But like all the other primitive hungers, conscience is blind and must be directed by the judgment.

Development of the sense of oughtness: Children know they ought to do right, and even before they have been taught, they understand in a vague way what it means to be good or bad. This is partly a sense of social approval or disapproval, conveyed to them by tone, gesture, or action; but behind this lies an instinct of oughtness. This feeling grows until puberty, and blossoms at the age of fourteen.

Development of moral judgments: The moral judgment is simply general judgment dealing with moral issues. With growth, its conclusions change and the right acts of one age may be wrong for the next. Since the judgments are changing, morals are relative; and we must sometimes accept, or at least tolerate, in children, what we condemn in adults.

Development of the moral nature in children: The fragmentariness of a child's life leads him to jump at conclusions and to be an extreme partisan. His egoism leads him to be selfish; and his lack of experience gives him weak sympathy and makes him cruel. His undeveloped time sense leads him to work for immediate ends, and hence deceit comes easily. He is also very open to imitation and, if surrounded by bad influences, contagion does its work. He is helped toward the right by the general social tendency to exalt goodness; by the general effort to protect

children from evil; and by his own sense of oughtness and his love of approbation.

Force of habit: Most of our conduct is habitual, rather than reasoned. Hence with children it is all important to form the habit of right doing. If a child is brought up in an atmosphere of evil he will accept the mature judgments about him, and will form habits of wrong conduct with very great ease. These can easily be broken up in infancy; they are difficult in childhood, and still more so in youth.

Moral awakening just after puberty: With the reorganization of life, about the age of twelve, the child's character is largely formed. During the six years following, great care should be given to secure right conduct. Vigorous exercise, skilled work, organizations of youth, fine ideals, all will help at this age.

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CRIMINAL TENDENCIES IN CHILDREN

Is there a criminal type of child? Lombroso's theory. The older belief that all children were born in sin. The scientific belief that we are the heirs of all the ages, and especially of our direct ancestors. There seems to be no such thing as a moral imbecile; though imbeciles are generally immoral, at least from the point of view of adult conduct. If we consider them as young children, the crime largely disappears. Children who are born in evil homes are generally surrounded by evil conditions in infancy. Probably malicious destruction, lying, thieving, drunkenness, and sensuality are not inherited; relative strength of inheritance and environment in producing crime.

Most criminals begin as children: Criminal life is largely started in the years between twelve and eighteen. A great deal of it certainly springs from parental neglect; and much of this is connected with bad housing, poor food, lack of playgrounds, and other conditions that accompany poverty. Criminals come largely from the homes of the rich and the poor; the middle class, with good material conditions and regular habits of work and play, largely escapes.

Conditions favorable to criminal life in children: Children struggle for self-direction, and they ought to do so; but they do not know enough to direct themselves and so, if they escape from the limiting conditions of home and school, they easily go wrong. They are stocked with energy and they long to be happy; if their natural exuberance of spirit is merely repressed it escapes in irregular ways that lead to destruction. Having short vision, they cannot see the inevitable results of wrong-doing.

Former treatment of juvenile delinquents: They were arrested, thrown into jail with adult criminals, and after some delay, during which they learned what their elders had to teach, they were tried under much the same routine as regular criminals, sent to prison with hardened adults,

and graduated as finished criminals. They went out shamed and ostracized, and crime was their easiest way.

Juvenile courts: In most states, children are now confined in houses of detention by themselves. Their cases are examined by sympathetic judges, who put aside the forms of the court and try to understand the individual circumstances. Most of the first offenders are given good advice and are liberated on parole. They are aided and watched over, and most of them are saved. If the cases are too difficult to be handled in the community life, they are sent to special schools, where they are trained in good habits, educated, at least in the rudiments of learning, and taught to work. Every emphasis is laid on building character.

George Junior Republics: These institutions represent many experiments which are being made with wayward children. Taken from their demoralized homes, generally in the city, they are surrounded in the countryside with simple conditions and are organized as self-directing colonies, aided by the suggestion and subject to the veto of an adult director. If they work, they earn money and can buy good food and shelter. If they are lazy they suffer. Social and moral realities are made so plain that the children can see them, and the effects are excellent.

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ATTITUDE OF CHILDREN TOWARD PUNISHMENT

Primitive attitude toward punishment: In lower forms of life, the injured animal turns on his enemy and destroys him if he is able. In primitive society, all the emphasis is laid on reimbursing the one wronged. Revenge is the victim's privilege and his right. Such laws, judges, and executioners as exist are there to see that the one wronged receives the largest possible compensation. An eye for an eye; code of Hammurabi; early Hebrew laws; laws of the Twelve Tables.

Attitude of the immediate past: Punishment existed as a deterrent to frighten the culprit and his kind so that the offense should not be repeated. The one wronged was largely ignored; and organized society looked only to its own preservation. Laws, judges, and prisons existed as scarecrows to frighten evil-doers, and the whole system rested on fear for its realization.

Impending attitude: To-day we look upon most wrongdoing as due to disease or ignorance, and the aim of punishment is to educate or cure the criminal. The one wronged is largely ignored and, so far as society seeks to protect itself, it does so by removing the cause of crime. In this stage, judges and executioners must be criminal experts; and education becomes the principal instrument of the law. The punishment may meantime be even more severe than before; maximum and minimum sentences; juvenile courts; paroles, reformatories.

Studies on children: Children's ideas of punishment as seen in their compositions on just and unjust punishments; their judgments on hypothetical cases. The younger children resort at once to physical reactions; but as they grow older there is a steadily increasing tendency to substitute more subjective penalties. In their earlier years, children consider the effects of actions; only later, do they pay much attention to motives; their whole attitude toward rewards and punishments is one of vague,

unreasoning feeling. Comparison of English and American children.

Spencer's natural consequences: The natural consequences of wrong-doing are the natural punishment; but they often come too late to be corrective; and since they come late, their causal relation may not be seen. The parents, or society, must step in immediately after the offense and interpret its final consequences in some immediately disagreeable form of punishment.

Educational applications: Infants understand and respond directly to force. A child under a year old cannot be reasoned with, but he must obey or die. Force is his language. As a young child, he naturally understands punishment as retribution; later, he understands it as correction. If children are well cared for, a sharp word or a severe glance will save the situation at a critical time; but if neglected, corporal punishment may be necessary. Just as severe medical treatment represents ignorance or neglect on the part of those responsible, so physical punishment becomes necessary through the same causes. But as human beings we are ignorant, and sometimes neglectful, and then we must use proper remedies.

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XXIII

PRIZES AND REWARDS

Nature of prizes and rewards: They are artificial stimuli, in the form of something desirable, given to human beings to make them put forth effort in directions where the natural results are not felt to be sufficient to induce the strongest possible effort. A prize is supposed to be offered in advance of the effort, while the reward follows; but, when the reward becomes established, it acts the same as a prize. These stimuli once played a very important part in education and society, but they are now unfashionable.

Present forms: Candy, toys, holidays, and money are still offered in homes; prize books, position in class, percental standings, honors, class offices, and *magnum cum laude*, in university degrees, still exist; stars, stripes, advancements in salary or position, rewards for return of property or for apprehending criminals, and pensions are found in public and private service; hero medals, and money from the Carnegie Hero Fund, are distributed in all parts of the world. War medals, orders, advancements, and votes of thanks are common in the army. Membership in institutes and academies, ribbons, orders, Nobel prizes, and other money prizes play an important part in the lives of artists and literary men. Knighthood and other titles of nobility are given in aristocracies. Protective tariffs, subsidies, thanks of Congress, pensions, and medals are given by our own government.

Psychology of rewards: Most of our efforts are put forth because of the benefit to be derived by ourselves or others in terms of pleasure or other well-being. A prize, or reward, is added to this natural benefit to increase the inducement. There is always the danger that the effort will be associated with the prize, and that the natural laws will be ignored. Thus the mind becomes confused; and when prizes fail effort stops.

Attitude of young children: They live in such a fragmen-

tary and disordered world that they often cannot see nor realize the natural motives that should keep them going. Adventitious prizes or rewards give them a motive which they can see and feel, and they may greatly stimulate effort. Like all devices in learning, they are dangerous; but they may be effective when a temporary effort is needed.

Use of prizes with the feeble-minded: In handling weak-minded children there may be no other way to reach them except through tangible rewards. At Vineland, New Jersey, the feeble-minded are promoted through steps in their daily work, or in their sleeping- or dining-room privileges. But the matter is so arranged that the child climbs up in opportunity to render service in the most disagreeable duties in the school. Thus the most advanced dining-room is the least agreeable room used in the school; and the highest position attainable is that of chief of the milking squad, where a boy must get up at four o'clock in the morning. The child may see only the distinction, but behind that the opportunity to serve is the real thing, and the children will come to realize this as far as they are individually able.

Use of prizes in more advanced society: Prizes are a species of gambling; and they disorganize private and public thinking. In literature and art, they tend to form academies, institutes, and cliques, which encourage fixed ideas. Orders of nobility have the same effect on general society. Prizes and rewards shade off into real wages and the natural consequences of effort, such as are seen in promotions, and in profit-sharing.

READING

There is no good literature on this subject.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ÆSTHETIC NATURE

Universality of beauty: The hunger for beauty not only leads us to seek attractive forms, colors, movements, and sounds, but it also drives us to create forms of beauty in and around ourselves. There is a tendency to look upon beauty as belonging to art; and upon art as something apart from ordinary life. In reality, a woman is a musician when she croons to her baby, a painter when she decorates her home, a sculptor when she chooses her costume, a landscape architect when she plants her garden.

Theories advanced to explain æsthetics: The arts grow through the expenditure of surplus energy. In lower animals any excess of energy which they may accumulate tends to pass off in activity along lines established in the species through use; kittens crouch and spring, dogs bark, colts trot. From needless crouching, jumping, running, develop the arts of dancing, marching, and the ballet; from barkings and chirpings come speech, song, and oratory; from scratchings and clippings comes design; from extra touches on a nest, a burrow, a cave, comes architecture.

Part played by sex attraction in this evolution: Under stress of passion, feathers brighten, fur takes a new gloss, horns glisten, wild creatures dance, song and new cries spring from the throat. Primitive man paints himself, puts feathers in his hair, and invents ornaments. He dances, struts, postures, shouts, and sings. War calls out similar expressions. Mating and maternity call for shelter, and adorn it.

Historic development: It seems to be true that the arts blossom in times of accumulated wealth, and peace, following times of struggle; they tend, when too highly developed, to weaken political and military efficiency. Early Egyptian art; naturalness of the period of the early dynasties; conventional limitations of later times. Great power of ideas and beliefs in determining art forms.

Theological limitations of Hebrew art in painting, sculpture, and architecture; effect on literature. The hunger for beauty in Greece; remarkable products of fifth century, B.C.; continuing influence of Greek ideals. Early Roman neglect and distrust of the arts; Græco-Roman art under the Empire; later excess and decadence.

Christian suspicion of the arts: Rise of asceticism, devotion to the inartistic; almost a worship of deformed bodies, dirty rags, sores, ugly huts; reasons for this. Byzantine painting, severe, formal, unreal. Rebirth of respect for the beauty-hunger in the thirteenth century; reasons for this.

Children's art interests: They are early attracted by brilliant light, color, strong or sharp sounds, rhythmic movement. Interest in form precedes love of color. In all art appreciation and creation children are excessive. They like drums, pounding on tin, dazzling colors, sharp rhythms, swings, hand-organs, merry-go-rounds. Order in which colors develop; neutral tints come late. Children's music, musical prodigies.

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RELIGIOUS DEVELOPMENT IN CHILDHOOD

The nature of religion: A complete religion comprises three parts: a theology, which deals with the true; a ritual, which expresses the beautiful; and a code of morals, which deals with the good. Some religions lack the moral code.

Stages in a child's religious life: Before a child reaches the age of twelve, he is eagerly gathering impressions; he accepts these uncritically and rests in authority; any statement of belief presented unquestioningly, by those whom the child trusts, is accepted at this time. The child shapes his conceptions on anthropomorphic forms; God is a venerable man seated in the clouds, and heaven is a beautiful garden.

From twelve to fourteen: At this time critical judgments awaken; the child begins to reason and he seeks to place responsibility for dogmatic statements. At first, he says: "We read in the Bible"; "I have been told"; or, "They say." Later, he uses the subjunctive "if"; and, still later, he says: "I doubt," "I am not sure," and the like. In the transition to spiritual conceptions, at this time, the greatest difficulty comes with the idea of omnipresence; omnipotence and omniscience are comparatively easy. This is the time when children naturally accept dogmas, and are confirmed in all the churches. After fourteen, comes a larger spiritual life, which finds its expression in aspiration, longing; adoration; the youth seeks service as an expression of his faith; knighthood flourishes; in modern life, the Epworth League, Y. M. C. A., and Y. W. C. A. organizations are powerful.

Psychology of religious observance: It gives order and dignity to life. It stimulates emotional activity, fear, hope, sympathy, and aspiration. It may stimulate thought and it may prevent it. It gives social expression to life; and generally encourages ideals of excellence.

Dangers connected with excessive devotion to church work:

Its standards are apt to be low, since it accepts the will for the deed. Inefficiency sometimes flourishes in Sunday Schools and in church committees.

Educational considerations: This country claims to be Christian and it provides chaplains for Congress and for the army; but the rival sects have forced the state to secularize its schools; the new Pennsylvania law. Sunday Schools reach only a part of the children of the country. Meantime, the Jewish and Christian religions must still furnish the key to our modern art, literature, and general culture.

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PLAY IN CHILDHOOD

Theories of play: It is the escape of surplus energy expended through lines established in the species by the activity of ancestors; it is a recapitulation of racial history; it is an anticipation of future necessary activity; it is a means of developing bodily and subjective powers at each stage of growth; relative merit of these theories.

Our changing attitude toward play: Formerly play was looked upon as mingled idleness and dissipation, dangerous to children. We now realize that it is a necessary process in developing the body, the mind, the emotions, and social understanding.

Changes in children's attitude toward play: Little children love fragmentary, spontaneous, and imitative plays, and they quickly tire of games. They play best in small groups, or alone. From the ages of six to ten they love playthings, short social games, and spontaneous play; from ten to fourteen, they love group games, where they are not too much bound by the rules, and where the individual has wide range of liberty for individual expression. After fourteen, they love games that require skill, and that subordinate the individual.

Need of adult direction: Play requires an open space, fitted for the purpose, and some apparatus. Even with these conditions, most children show little invention in play and they need constant suggestions. Forward children need repression; and timid ones, encouragement. Difficulty in securing the best playing conditions without undue interference.

Attempts to organize play in America: Our games suffer from our earlier theories of repression and from the tendency to professionalism. We are now recognizing that every school should have a playground; difficulty in directing play through a body of exclusively women teachers; the Gary experiment. Public playgrounds in cities; Chicago recreation centers; difficulty in securing good

leaders and supervisors of public playgrounds. The use of school premises for social purposes; difficulty of providing indoor play for the winter months; dancing.

Play as recreation in later life: When the nervous system is overworked, the mind wearies, the will weakens, and the tendency is to stop. If, however, the worker sticks to his task, he passes the immediate tire and, as we say, he gets his second wind. The broken-down tissues have intoxicated him, and he may do better than before. The second tire comes more quickly than the first, and, if the worker persists, he may get his third wind, and even an added brilliancy of work. Such results are purchased at the price of all stimulants, subsequent exhaustion, and serious breakdown. If often repeated, the worker finds himself keyed up and caught in a nervous current from which he cannot escape. The only corrective for such a condition is recreation.

Physical recreation is the best: Grown people should play games out of doors, tennis, ball, golf. The use of play in England; the effect of adult's participation in national plays.

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CHILDREN'S ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK

How children play their way into the harness of industry: It is largely imitation that determines the lines along which the surplus energy of childhood shall discharge itself. The ideal environment for a young child is a simple, domestic setting, in the countryside, where primitive industries prevail. There he can play his way into the useful activities of life along the line over which the race has traveled. In a city environment, especially where there are servants, it is very difficult for a child to find his way into the world's work.

School substitutes for home work: The kindergarten seeks to lead the child through typical industrial lines, but his sowing grain and mending shoes is only a shadow of the reality. It is good, but not the best. Montessori, in simplified buttonings and lacings, seeks to make this more real, but the types are very incomplete. In the early elementary grades, manual training, school gardens and recreation-grounds can do much.

Work for definite products is only slightly educative for children: It quickly passes the educative stage and it demands qualities of persistence that do not belong to the age. Child labor destroys power of industrial adjustment. The play attitude should be largely maintained until the age of sixteen, at least.

Children's attitude toward domestic work: Miss Dismorr's study shows that children only slowly recognize their debt to parents, for maintenance and education. It is well that this realization should come slowly; but it should be definitely trained. The feeling that work, as work, deserves recompense comes early into consciousness, but in a vague way.

Have children vocational aptitudes? Most children select their life work by accident, but they undoubtedly have strong leanings, in most cases, which can be determined, and which would greatly increase human efficiency and

happiness. Vocational bureaus and the careful attention of the teachers would save wide margins of life.

Efforts to determine vocational fitness: Parsons and The Boston Vocation Bureau; based on an effort to help the child recognize his own qualities and then compare these qualities with those required in the callings to which he feels drawn. Münsterberg's more exact laboratory tests; efforts to apply them. Recent action of the Pennsylvania Railroad.

Educational applications: An abundance of manual training should be given in all schools both for its general educational value, and as preparation for work. Every opportunity should be seized to acquaint the children with different kinds of work, through trips to factories, and through noting work on the streets and in the homes. Biographies of worthy workers should be presented in attractive forms. After the age of fourteen, or sixteen, the child should be definitely fitted for his life work through special schools.

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CHILDREN'S ATTITUDE TOWARD PROPERTY

Property in the animal world: The desire to possess things runs through all living organisms. Even the lowest animals eat more than they need, if they can find it, and lay on fat or protective covering. An animal with surplus fat is a capitalist and may retire from business, as it does when it hibernates. Higher animals accumulate nuts, bury bones, store up honey, hide acorns, or monopolize hunting grounds; the woods are full of savings banks.

What property means: Property, in the psychological sense, is anything into which the individual has infused himself. This may not be the same as legal ownership, but it is the basal conception to which legal ownership must go back from time to time for correction. When a child gets possession of a toy he warms it with his own life. It becomes a part of himself, like a new leg or an arm. In this sense, property is an expansion of the self; a new body for the soul to use.

Stages in the development of a child's property sense: With infants the property sense is mere greediness; like animals and savages, they possess everything, in a vague, unthinking way. During early childhood, to six years old, the advance is through desire, "I want it"; possession, "I have it"; prior possession, "I got it first"; turn about, "My turn next." Meantime, individual ownership has crept up through comparatively valueless things, bits of stick and string, pieces of colored glass, cards, the waste basket of civilization. Property claims at this period rest largely on finding and gift; exchange or sale is difficult, as children cannot entirely withdraw themselves from their possessions, "Indian givers." Small sense of money; property morality; stealing.

From six to twelve years old: The desire for personal ownership is extreme. It develops along the lines of playthings, ornaments, small tools, clothes, and the like. It is difficult for children to own things in common, unless they

are large things, like playgrounds, buildings, or libraries, where ownership hardly appears.

From twelve to eighteen years: Experience is more valuable than things; it is not a saving time. Social interests make common ownership increasingly possible; baseball outfits; society rooms, and furnishings. With maturity, especially with the coming of marriage and children, the individual seeks to accumulate; and he bends himself to the beliefs and practices of his times.

Educational problems: What part should the education of the property sense play in state schools? The older schools taught children to "respect property rights"; would it be a better protection for the future if they were taught the meaning of property rights? Admitting that communal ownership of school supplies, books, paper, pencils, etc., is a social economic necessity, is it good education for young children? Ought children to have an allowance? Should they be paid for domestic service? Should they save money for the sake of accumulating? If so at what age? Are school banks desirable? At what age should children be given a sense of the economic value of their playthings, books, and clothes?

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ATTITUDE OF CHILDREN TOWARD POLITICAL LIFE

Educational value of political life: The final justification for a democracy lies in the fact that it educates all the people all the time. It is a constant laboratory course of study in sociology, economics, ethics, and philosophy. When all the people participate, mistakes are simply the price of learning; when a few govern, no one learns. Political life broadens the mind and leads away from provincial points of view; it makes for fair-mindedness, and leads one to respect opinions opposed to his own. It deepens the sense of political rights and, hence, of patriotism; it disarms violence by making people realize that they are to blame for their own troubles.

American schools based on need for political training: Our state schools were founded to provide intelligent citizens for a democracy. The higher institutions were supposed to train ministers and statesmen. To-day, the aim of our schools is increasingly to prepare industrial leaders and workers.

What good citizenship demands: General intelligence; fine ideals of public service; knowledge of the machinery of government; acquaintance with political problems; ability to pick out the right men for office; watchfulness over public servants. New elements in the problem; social problems are increasingly becoming political problems; girls must be trained as well as boys.

Children's attitude toward political problems: Tibbey found that when children were asked what they would do if called to rule over a country that had no government, three-quarters of them concentrated their attention on keeping order; nearly a quarter of them would provide means of protection; and a small number would care for the poor, for education, and the like. Distinctively political questions, dealing with the organization of the government, laws, and courts, received very little attention before the ages of eleven and twelve.

Children's attitude toward leaders: In our studies on Queen Victoria, in England, and on President McKinley, in the United States, we found that the children admired these characters primarily because they were good and kind. They paid little attention to their intelligence, their devotion, or their morals, and until the age of ten they paid hardly any attention to their political qualities or powers. As Miss Jane Addams has pointed out, many of our voters are still on this plane, and so political bosses flourish.

Education for citizenship: Children in state schools should be taught by voters; they should early pass judgment, under guidance, on different types of men and women; after the ages of ten or twelve they should be made acquainted with the political movements of the day, and should form the habit of reading and thinking about them; before leaving school, they should be made acquainted with forms of government.

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CHILDREN'S SEX INTERESTS

Significance of sex: The persistence of life in the world depends on the maintenance of sex interest, hence Nature has made it very powerful. Physically, it has developed a wide range of primary sex differences, those necessary for reproduction; and of secondary sex differences, those which serve as attractions, brilliant color, vocal calls, and the like. It has also developed subjective differences, though it is hard to tell which are primary and which are secondary in human beings.

Sex and civilization: Sexual love furnishes the theme for much of literature, painting, sculpture, and music. It is the strongest present-day force in shaping human lives. It leads to the finest expressions of life in both men and women; it establishes the family; and it has lifted us to most of our advanced planes in human progress. But it also leads to lowest degradation of body and soul; and it continues the most terrible diseases known to man.

Children's attitude toward sex before puberty: In human beings, the centers where end organs of nerves abound can be made to yield pleasure in various ways. Even infants turn early to these pleasures; handling themselves; the dry nipple; masturbation. Questions of origin arise sporadically in children's minds at all ages. From early childhood, boys and girls are easily attracted to morbid and obscene words, imagery, and stories. Under good conditions, boys and girls play freely together in infancy, but from the ages of seven to twelve they tend to play alone. With the physical changes that come at puberty there awakens a definite need for physiological information, especially for girls.

After the age of twelve: Both boys and girls develop strong sex interest. They long for knowledge, and find special interest in being together. The tendency, however, under good conditions of living, is for modesty and shyness to keep ahead of sexual desire, and thus develop dreams and chivalry.

Reasons for giving sex instruction: The object in giving sex instruction is to anticipate evil words, images, and acts; to give the necessary instruction that will lead to sexual and physical health; to prepare youth for intelligent parenthood; to secure a generation of strong children; to prevent and to eradicate sexual diseases.

Dangers in sex instruction: Human beings are naturally reticent in matters of sex; and in childhood and youth the natural interests do not gather around the processes of reproduction, but about the pleasures of sex. Hence we may load the mind with unnecessary biological knowledge; we may awaken premature interest; and we may rob youth of its finer dreams of chivalry. All these dangers are increased if the information is given in school, through the fact that it is difficult to deal with groups or to isolate the individuals; parents are ignorant and may resent the best of instruction; and the teachers are mainly celibate women.

Experiments now being tried: Work of the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis; of the American Social Hygiene Association; of the Bureau of Social Hygiene; of the Y. M. C. A. Extension Lectures; of High School courses, in Chicago and elsewhere; of books for children, parents, and teachers; of home instruction.

READING

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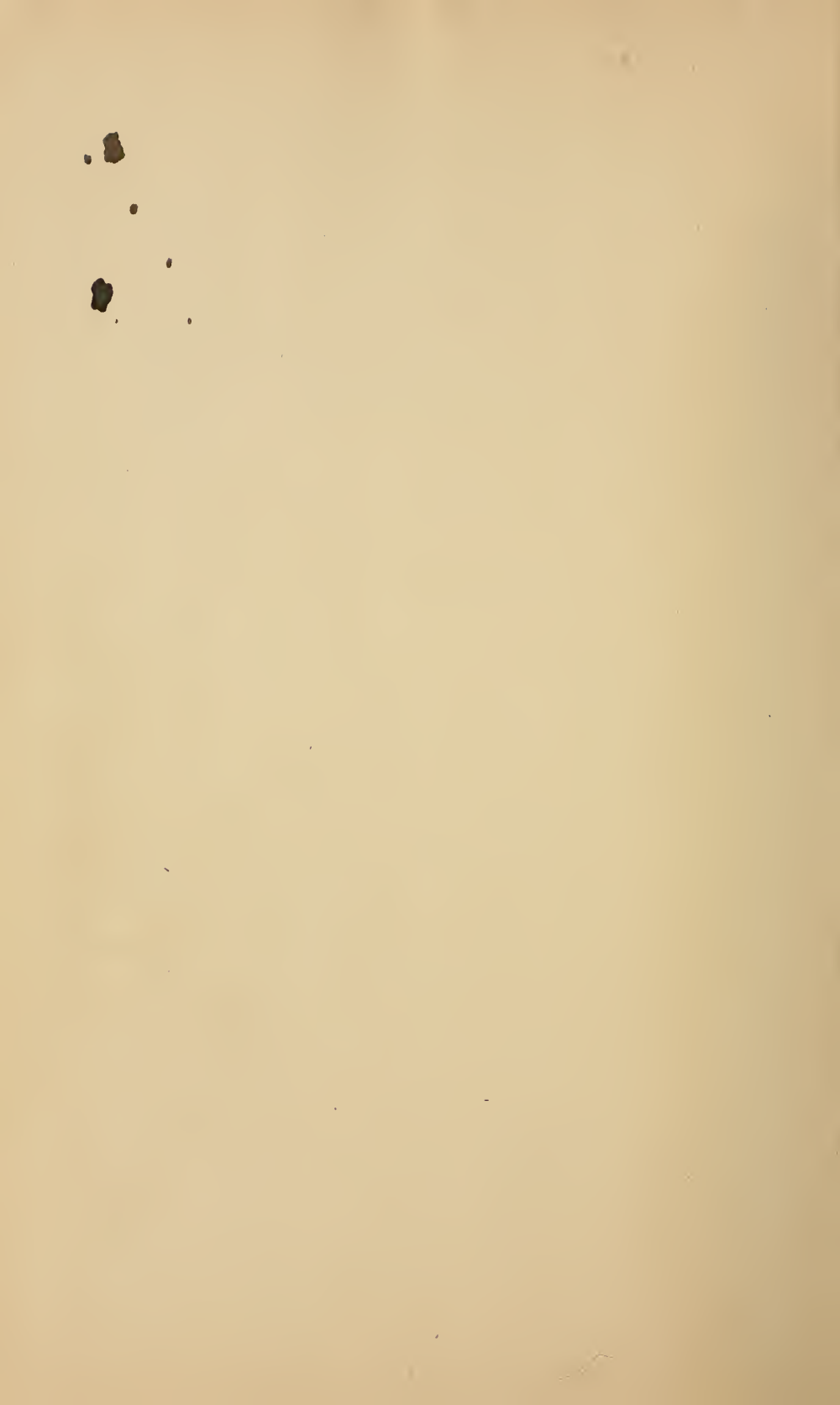
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Books and Pamphlets Intended to Give Sex Information, by Earl Barnes, in *Studies in Education*, Vol. I, p. 301.

An Introduction to the Study of Adolescent Education, by Cyril Bruyn Andrews, Rebman Limited, London, 1912.

Report of the Special Committee on the Matter and Methods of Sex Education, issued by The American Federation for Sex Hygiene, 105 West 40th Street, New York, 1912.

Psychology of Adolescence, by Marion Craig Potter, Rochester, New York, 1913.



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